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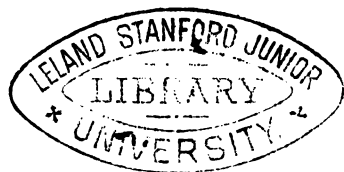


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BEALE'S EDUCATIONAL SERIES. No. 1.

Business Punctuation

BY CHARLES CURRIER BEALE

Third edition, revised and enlarged



BOSTON:

BEALE PUBLISHING CO., 180 WASHINGTON ST.

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DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY

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FOREWORDS.

The art of punctuation* is of comparatively recent origin, being generally ascribed to the celebrated Venetian printer, Aldo Manutius (1447-1515), who was the first in modern times to introduce a system of punctuating-marks. The system of Manutius (whose name is remembered by book-lovers, as the publisher of the famous Aldine editions of ancient authors), more or less modified and extended, is that in common use today. Aristophanes of Alexandria (200 B. C.) is said to have invented punctuation, but it was soon neglected. Albinus Alcuinus (735-804) partially restored it, at the request of Charlemagne, using a point called the stigma, and also a line, of varied form. The Anglo-Saxons, according to Bosworth, used this stigma sparingly in prose, but frequently, in poetry, to mark the end of the metrical lines.

It may not be out of place to say here that the commonness of poor punctuating is due largely to the fact that so little care has been exercised in teaching punctuation, and so much difference of opinion exists among those who

*Punctuation, from the latin *punctum*, a point, is the art of pointing off by certain characters, to make the meaning plain, in printing or writing.

are considered authorities. Very few people understand the laws of punctuation, for the reason that they have not studied them sufficiently, or have studied a poor textbook.

We have endeavored, in the following compendium of punctuation, to represent those rules which are sanctioned by both authority and usage, where possible; and, where it has been necessary to choose, we have adhered to inherent correctness, in preference to long-established custom. The author can not, of course, lay any claim to originality, except in the minute details of presentation; but, he believes that he has presented, for the first time, a *brief* and easily understood treatise on punctuation, which may be safely followed in every particular.

The first edition of this work was published three years ago, under the title of "Punctuation in a Nutshell." It was especially designed for the use of stenographers and typewriters; but we believe the present thoroughly-revised and enlarged edition will be of service to all who are called upon to write, whether literary, professional, or business men; and with this hope it is offered to the public by

THE COMPILER.

FOREWORDS TO THE THIRD EDITION.

The demand for this little book has so much exceeded my anticipations, that I am obliged to lay aside all other work, to revise it for the printers. During the time the first two editions have been on the market, opportunities for improvement have been noted, and such improvements have been embodied in the present edition. The most noteworthy change is the entire rewriting of the rules for the comma, and the addition of suitable exercises, in order to adapt it to class-work. Some matter which has been deemed unnecessary, has been omitted, and other more essential matter substituted for it. In preparing this book, it has been found that previous books on the subject were of little assistance, since they applied more directly to literary composition. While giving credit, therefore, for slight aid from the scholarly works of Wilson, Bigelow, Matthews, and others, I wish to make full acknowledgment of my indebtedness to the intelligent assistance and collaboration of Miss C. E. Burbank, to whose experience and suggestions, many of the most valuable portions of the book are due.

Business Punctuation.

BY CHARLES CURRIER BEALE.

The marks of punctuation are of three kinds, grammatical, typographical, and referential. The grammatical, or rhetorical points are the period (.); comma (,); semi-colon (;); colon (:); and the hyphen (-), when used to form compound words.

THE PERIOD. (.)

The period is used: 1. At the end of every sentence whose context does not require a mark of exclamation or interrogation. *Example.* A good correspondent is neat.

2. After all abbreviations, except those formed by using an apostrophe to show the omission of letters. *Ex.* F. o. b. C. o. d. Agt.

3. As a decimal point. NOTE.—The period must be used between dollars and cents, this being a true decimal. *Ex.* 3041.167. \$24.00. \$15.25.

4. After a heading, address, or signature. *Ex.* Part One. Philip Gould, Cambridge, Mass.

Exercise.

~~no.~~ Rewrite in accordance with preceding rules.

Mr Obadiah Cook, of Hallowell, Me, wanted to improve his education. His friends advised him to stay at home, and saw wood or hoe corn. He, however, was ambitious. He attended a first-class business college at So Framingham, Mass, paying \$45.14 for tuition, etc. He learned bookkeeping, stenography, and terms like "K d," "C o d," "f o b," and others. He soon obtained a position as stenographer to the Frt Agt of the B & M R R. He was rapidly promoted until he became G P A with a salary of \$5000.00 per year. Now his friends saw wood for him.

THE COMMA. (,)

The rules for the comma, though usually perplexing, may be acquired by thorough study. The difficulty has been that most books have been too vague, to be understood easily. We have tried to make the following rules simple, and to illustrate them by practical business matter.

NOTE.—The functions of the comma are fourfold. First, to show that the word, phrase, or

clause, pointed off, does not qualify what immediately precedes or follows. Second, to indicate the omission of qualifying words or phrases. Third, to show that a word, phrase, or clause, is of a parenthetical, appositive, or explanatory nature. Fourth, to avoid ambiguity.

1. Use a comma before a phrase commencing with a participle, when it is separated from the word it qualifies. *Ex.* We enclose our *check* for \$25.34, *covering* our account.

2. Use a comma after a complimentary closing, if to be followed by a signature. *Ex.* Yours truly, W. E. Russell.

3. Before the word "which," when it is separated from its antecedent. *Ex.* We enclose copy of your *letter* of Sept. 23, *which* was missent.

4. A conditional clause, usually beginning with "if," "though," "unless," "except," etc., is separated from the rest of the sentence, with a comma. *Ex.* If you have not received our letter, let us hear from you at once. Come to our office at three o'clock, if possible.

5. When a clause or phrase is placed at the beginning of a sentence, it is followed by a comma. *Ex.* Since writing you yesterday, we have received your check.

6. Explanatory and parenthetical expressions are pointed off with commas. *Ex.* (Explanatory) This leaves a balance of \$23.82, as per statement enclosed. (Parenthetical) The fact is, as you doubtless are aware, we have had, etc. He, however, prevailed upon us.

7. Modified members of compound predicates are separated by commas. *Ex.* We are advised that you are in trouble, and write to ask what the condition of affairs is. We have no orders to send you by this mail, but shall be most happy to send you one when opportunity offers.

8. When a clause or phrase is separated from the word it modifies, by another clause, or phrase, it is pointed off with commas. *Ex.* We name very low prices on our goods, with the expectation of having our bills met at maturity. We return your invoice of the 21st inst., for correction.

9. In cases like "coming and going," "men and women," "receipt and return," no comma is used before "and"; but, if the first member is followed by a modifying word or phrase, a comma is needed; as, We thank you for sending us lists of prices, and keeping us posted in regard to the market. We think Mr.

Smith is acting very singularly in this matter, and most unbusinesslike.

*Examples like, "Please return corrected bill, and oblige," often occur, and are really governed by this rule. They are incomplete, as the subjects of imperative sentences are usually omitted.

10. Words or phrases in apposition (equivalent in meaning with what precedes them) are pointed off with commas. *Ex.* The full amount of our bill, \$464.75, must be received by tomorrow.

~~10.~~ This does not apply to title immediately followed by the name of the person, or a similar construction. *Ex.* Bishop Phillips Brooks. Lady Henry Somerset. King Alfred the Great.

11. A long, complex (consisting of different elements) subject is separated from its predicate, in order to avoid ambiguity.

12. A participial, adjective, absolute, adverbial, or independent phrase or clause at the beginning of a sentence, is followed by a comma. *Ex.* (Participial) Trusting that you will make this step unnecessary, we remain. (Absolute) He having completed his business, we must go. (Adverbial) In your judgment, will the carriage be safe to use the balance of the season? (Independent) My dear sir, we can not do so.

13. When a word or phrase qualifies a series of words, it is separated from the last with a comma. *Ex.* Can you make us Nos. 12, 16, and 11, four feet in width?

14. A relative clause (one commencing with *who*, *which*, or *that*) immediately following its antecedent, is pointed off with commas, when it is *descriptive* (not restrictive). When *distinctive* (restrictive), the comma must be omitted. (See also Rule 3). *Ex.* (Descriptive) Please find enclosed a lawyer's letter, which explains itself. (Distinctive) Find enclosed the lawyer's letter which I promised you.

NOTE.—When a word is immediately followed by a relative phrase or clause which qualifies it (one beginning with “who,” “which,” or “that”), a comma is not used, if the phrase or clause *distinguishes* it from all other *individual objects* of the same name. When the clause simply *describes* it in a way applicable to all other objects of the same name, the comma must be used. The first is called *distinctive* (distinguishing, or restricting), and the second, *descriptive* (describing, or non-restrictive.) *Exs.* (*Distinctive*) The firm that makes these goods, is in Boston. The shoes that you ordered, are on the way. (*Descriptive*) This firm, which is the largest of its kind, is in Boston. Patent leather shoes, which are always in demand, are selling well.

NOTE 2.—The same principle laid down for relative clauses, applies to participial phrases or clauses; *i. e.*, to phrases or clauses beginning with a participle. *Ex.* (*Distinctive*) The man selling the most goods, gets the best salary. (*Descriptive*) The other man, knowing better, did not do it.

15. A comma is usually used to indicate the omission of words. *Ex.* We enclose statement of your account, now due. [Your account (which is) now due.] The Adams Express, in New York. [The Adams Express (which is) in New York.]

~~15~~ These examples might be covered by Rule 13 also, if they were written out.

NOTE.—This rule does not apply to the omission of a single word, when the construction is close; as, "In reply will say."="In reply (we) will say." "Your favor at hand."="Your favor (is) at hand." "Your postal duly received."="Your postal (is) duly received."

16. An inverted or transposed phrase or clause is pointed off with commas. *Ex.* For, why he should discriminate between us, we are at a loss to understand. (Properly, For we are at a loss to understand why he, etc.) And, when you are ready, we should be pleased to see you.

17. "Etc." should be preceded by a comma. *Ex.* We send catalogue of wood mantels, etc.

NOTE.—In many books this rule is not given; but, "etc." unquestionably taking the place of a series of words, which would make the comma a necessity, it seems to be the only correct way.

18. After words like "say", "observe," "tell," "write," "acknowledge," etc., a comma is used before a phrase or clause not beginning with "that." *Ex.* In reply would say, we bought the pillows at the price first quoted. I told you, I would make the men's line of goods seamless.

19. Series of words, or series of pairs of words joined with "and," or similar conjunctives, are pointed off with commas. *Ex.* We enclose list of prices of nails, bolts, screws, and other hardware. There is to be a sale of watches and jewelry, books and paintings, furniture and bric-a-brac.

NOTE. When several adjectives are used in succession, the one next the noun qualifying it, the one preceding qualifying both adjective and noun, and so on, commas are not necessary. *Ex.* A good old man. Three crimson mohair-plush Rochester barber-chairs," "Rochester" qualifies "barber-chairs"; "mohair"

qualifies "plush," and "mohair plush" qualifies "Rochester barber-chairs," "crimson" qualifies all that follows; and "three" qualifies all that follows it.

~~19.~~ When all the words of a series of three or more words are connected with "and" or "or," no commas are necessary; but, if the last two only are connected in this way, commas should be used. *Ex.* Nos. 12, 16, and 11. John and James and Joseph and Jeremiah are going.

20. Each of the members of an address or date-line, is pointed off with commas. *Ex.* John Jones, 34 Duane St., New York City, N. Y. Boston, Mass., May 29, 1892.

21. When the subject ends with a verb, and the predicate begins with a verb, a comma is used to separate them. *Ex.* Whatever is, is right.

22. A comma is used to point off numbers into periods of three figures each. *Ex.* 975,252. \$642,381,629.

23. Commas are used before direct quotations. *Ex.* Supt. Bates says, "We drove the Northern off the Barton line."

24. Words used in direct address, are pointed off with commas. *Ex.* My friends, this is distinctively the era of progress.

25. Before and after words like "however," "too," "perhaps," etc., when they break the continuity of the sentence. *Ex.* We, however, do not do business in that way.

26. Contrasted words or phrases are separated with commas. *Ex.* The goods are cheap, yet durable; well-made, but not high-priced.

27. A modifying element which has several antecedents, is separated from the last, with a comma. *Ex.* Let us hear from you, if there are any ribbons, carbon, or typewriter-paper, that you desire,

28. In addition to the positions explained in the preceding rules, the comma may be inserted wherever its omission would cause ambiguity.

Exercises.

 Rewrite in accordance with preceding rules.

According to the common opinion the use of the comma in writing and printing is very perplexing. When using the typewriter one discovers for the first time the necessity not only of spelling correctly but in addition of understanding and applying the rules for the use of the marks of punctuation among which the comma without doubt is most important. It

was formerly the custom in teaching punctuation to tell the pupil to insert a comma wherever one pauses long enough to count "one." This is absurd and we never hear such instructions now. A comma wrongly inserted or omitted when it should be inserted may change the whole sense of the sentence. It is said that mischievous pupils once inserted a comma in the scriptural reading for the day so that their pompous instructor reading more by the printing than by the sense read the following passage thus: "And he said unto them 'Saddle me, the ass; and they saddled *him*.' "

Boston Mass. Oct. 5 1892.

Messrs. Jones Brown & Robinson

256 Water St. Baltimore Md.

Dear sirs:—

We have your esteemed favor of the 24th inst. and wish to thank you before going further for your kind expressions concerning our book on punctuation. We have always believed until very recently that a book of punctuation would be a hard book to sell since there are so many books of the kind. We are happy to state however that we have sold 44562891 copies all of which are giving perfect satisfaction. There are many books which are being industriously advertised throughout the country but they are so unsatisfactory that their purchasers are only more anxious to get

a book which without being large and cumbersome contains everything essential to exact punctuating. Thanking you again for your favor which will receive our prompt attention we remain

Very truly yours

SMITH SMITH & SMITH.

THE SEMICOLON. (;)

The semicolon is a mark of punctuation, the function of which is to denote a separation of thought, or a grammatical distinction greater than that indicated by the comma.

1. Contrasted members of compound sentences are separated with semicolons. *Ex.* Please send us a check at your earliest convenience; or, if agreeable to you, we will draw on you at sight. You have made no change in the advertisement; neither have you placed us at the top of the column.

2. A semicolon should precede an explanatory or inferential clause beginning with a conjunction, when added to a complete sentence. *Ex.* We think Mr. Smith is acting very singularly in this matter; for we are at a loss to understand why he should discriminate between us. It seems as if ten days was enough to copy that schedule of rates; so please hurry it, if possible.

NOTE.—The words “for,” “therefore,” “as,” “so,” “also,” and “nevertheless,” are the ones which introduce these clauses most frequently.

3. A semicolon should be used between the members of a compound sentence, when each contains a dependent clause. *Ex.* We bought the pillows at the price you billed them first; and, as it was your mistake, we don’t see why we should be the losers.

4. A semicolon should be used after each member of a list of articles, when prices or qualifying expressions are used. *Ex.* No. 6 Champion horse-rakes, \$18.00 each, f. o. b. Boston; Improved North American plows, k. d. at factory, thirty-five per cent. from lis’; Thompson horse-hoes, k. d. at factory, \$7.00; f. o. b. Boston, \$7.25; nailed canal-barrows, k. d. New York City, \$1.35.

5. When a statement is followed by an example, introduced by “as,” “namely,” “for instance,” “to wit,” “viz.,” “for example,” or similar words or phrases, a semicolon should precede, and a comma should follow the introductory word or phrase. *Ex.* We can not allow you a larger discount than we have formerly; viz., twenty per cent. We like some of your books; namely, “Business Spelling” and “Business Pronunciation.”

6. Semicolons should be used to separate short, complete sentences, where the connection is close. *Ex.* He wrote me a letter; I answered it; then he came to me in person.

7. Semicolons should separate clauses having a common dependence upon another clause, when they are not connected with each other. *Ex.* In reply will say, we can not furnish the goods ordered; we can not procure them for you; and we do not know where you can obtain them.

Exercise.

 Rewrite in accordance with preceding rules.

There is no mark of punctuation which is more abused and neglected than the semicolon for its use is so little understood. In writing an order for goods for instance, "ten dozen white line brooms at \$2.50 per dozen—six dozen hurl brooms at \$1.80 per dozen," etc., most stenographers would use a comma or a period, but, in such a case, it is manifestly wrong to do so. Again, some persons do not seem to understand the application of the rules for the semicolon, to compound sentences or if they do, they fail to carry them out. We have often noticed how poorly business letters are punctuated and, as it seems to us, it is owing largely to the incorrect use of the semi-

colon. We do not understand why this is so, we can not see any reason for it, we believe there is a remedy. In conclusion, we will say, we have tried to remedy this evil, we have illustrated the rules to the best of our ability, and we believe they will be plain to all.

THE COLON. (:)

The colon is a mark of punctuation, the function of which is, to a great extent, to show that what follows it is exactly explanatory or equivalent to what comes before. The former use of the colon, to separate subdivided members of compound sentences, would seem to be not only unnecessary, but irrational, and we believe there is no merit in preserving such customs. If there be a separation of thought greater than can be indicated with a semicolon, it would seem advisable to separate into sentences.

The colon is used in the following ways:—

1. When what follows is exactly explanatory of what comes before, after words or phrases like "as follows" or "the following."
Ex. The list of names was as follows: The following officers were elected:

2. After "Dear sir," or "Gentlemen," or any title of respect used in beginning a letter; and, in such cases, usually followed by a dash (—), or two hyphens (- -). *Ex.* Dear sir:—
Gentlemen:--

3. Between the figures designating hours and minutes. *Ex.* 8:30 P. M. 6:40 A. M.

4. *Instead of a period, after an initial letter, when such a letter is the initial of the commonest Christian name commencing with that letter. *Ex.* W: Smith (William Smith). C: White (Charles White). E: Kirby (Edward Kirby).

5. After an abbreviated name, when the abbreviation is used as a full name. *Ex.* Ben: Sam: Will: Fred:

*The last two rules are not compulsory, but are approved by good authority, and are in good taste.

Exercise.

 Rewrite in accordance with preceding rules.

Ladies and gentlemen,

We have been speaking to you since 8,30 o'clock concerning the use of the colon, and we will now close, by giving you our last advice; as follows,—

Ben. Perley Poore used to say his favorite maxim was that of D. (David) Crockett; viz., "Be sure you are right, and then go ahead." Apply this principle in the use of the colon; and, if I resemble G. Washington in respect to veracity, I am sure you will thank me for explaining the rules applying to this almost superannuated mark of punctuation.

THE HYPHEN AS A COMPOUNDER. (-)

The proper compounding of words has been a subject almost untaught in our educational textbooks and institutions, and even our standard dictionaries show a most remarkable indifference and laxity concerning this point. It is believed that the rules here laid down will be of great practical benefit to all writers, and especially typewriter-operators, whose work shows so plainly the lack of intelligent study.

Words are compounded in two ways:

1. By writing two words as one, without a hyphen.
2. By joining two words with a hyphen.

In this book we shall treat only of the use of the hyphen; an elaborate explanation of the whole art of compounding words will be found

in the "Complete Course in English," published by the publishers of this book. We deem it best to classify by parts of speech.

Articles.

The articles are never joined with hyphens to other words.

Nouns.

1. Two nouns used together to describe one article, are compounded when neither is descriptive of any particular attribute or quality of the other.

When the first word is a word of one syllable, do not use the hyphen; when it contains more than one syllable, use the hyphen. *Ex.* Inkbottle, hatbox, typewheel, typewriter, bookkeeper; passenger-elevator, pencil-case, typewriter-operator.

NOTE. As it is often difficult to tell when the first noun is used adjectively, in which case the words are not joined, we give the following test, which will apply in most cases: When one word defines or is in apposition with the other, it is considered as adjectival; as, "The cloth dress"="The dress which is cloth." "The rebel general"="The general who was a rebel." "The plush chair"="The chair of plush." By carrying out this test, the student may usually determine whether a word is used as a true adjective.

2. A noun and a pronoun, when compounded, should be hyphenized; as, He-goat, she-bear.

3. Adjectives and nouns are not hyphenized; as, Shorthand, longhand.

4. Nouns and verbs (principally participles) are compounded in accordance with the rules for two nouns; as, Henpecked, motheater, water-soaked, heartbroken, bookkeeping, typewriting, writing-machine.

5. Prepositions and nouns, when compounded, should not be hyphenized; as, Today, tomorrow, tonight, upstairs, downstairs, offhand, uptown.

NOTE.—The student must be careful to discriminate between the true preposition and the adverb, or preposition used as an adverb; as, Hangers-on, looker-in.

Adjectives.

Adjectives joined with any part of speech except nouns, are hyphenized; as, red-cheeked, fair-haired, blue-eyed.

Verbs.

Verbs (including participles) compounded with any words except nouns, are hyphenized; as, fast-running, far-seeing, easy-going.

Prepositions.

Prepositions, except when used as adverbs, require no hyphen, when compounded with other words; as, Within, without, overcome, overcharge, herewith.

NOTE.—The preposition “a,” as in “a-fishing,” etc., is considered as being used adverbially.

Adverbs.

Adverbs, when joined with other words (unless governed by preceding rules), require the hyphen; as, Heavily-laden, far-seeing.

Numerals.

The compound numerals between twenty and one hundred are hyphenized; as, Twenty-one, forty-first.

Conjunctions and Interjections.

These parts of speech are not compounded with others.

Exercise.

 Rewrite, correcting the errors in hyphenizing.

a. John operates the type-writer and writes short hand very well. He is also a good bookkeeper. He studied the text-book a long

time; but, after about twentythree months, he was able to take a good paying position in a store where they sell castile-soap, hair-pins, pigiron, and Gatling-guns.

b. A rifle ball does not travel with one-half the velocity of thought, yet many short-hand students seem to have no thoughts at all sometimes. They will write compound-words without a hyphen, and put in hyphens without regard to common-sense. A common-sense pupil should not be a block-head.

c. A book-seller told me the other day that he would rather be a brake-man and sell buck-wheat cakes, than to wear broad-cloth, and sell book-cases full of black-letter volumes. "It is more business-like," he continued, "to get to bed at sun-down than to let bedtime pass and mid-night come, and still be using up lamp-wicks, describing master pieces of book-binding and type-setting, to dead-heads, who have no money in their pocket-books."

TYPOGRAPHICAL POINTS.

The typographical points, or those not depending on the grammatical construction, or syntax, are the dash (—); the mark of exclamation (!); the apostrophe ('); the quotation

marks (" "); short *and* or ampersand* (&); the parenthesis (); the brackets, or crotchets []; and the hyphen (-), when used for the indication of the division of words.

*The name "ampersand," often applied to "&," is a corruption of "and *per se*, and," which was formerly said after the other letters, in reciting the alphabet.

THE HYPHEN AS A DIVIDER. (-)

1. The hyphen is used at the end of a line, to indicate that a word is divided.

When it is necessary to divide a word, it should be divided strictly according to syllables, only syllables being left at the end of a line, or carried to the next; the following examples giving some idea of proper division:

Nec-es-sa-ry div-i-sion div-id-ed strict-ly ac-cord-ing syl-la-ble be-ing car-ried fol-low-ing ex-am-ples giv-ing prop-er.

 A syllable of one letter should never stand alone. In derivative words where the original ends in double letters, both should remain together; as, Press-ed, ex-press-ion, re-called; but, in all other cases, they should be separated; as, Bet-ter, com-mit-ted, bat-tle, mis-sile, run-ning.

THE DASH. (—)

1. The dash is used in place of parentheses, where the connection is too close to admit of them, and still of a parenthetical nature. *Ex.* The fact may be true—I do not say that it is not—that he is guilty.

2. Where the construction of the sentence is suddenly broken or changed. *Ex.* I wish to inform you—but I will not discuss the matter further.

3. To denote the omission of part of a word or name, where it is not desirable to write it in full. *Ex.* Mrs. B—n. The town of M—d.

4. Between the different numbers of a series, or between two numbers, to denote that all the intervening numbers are included. Also, to denote the interim between dates, in which case the figures representing the century may be dropped in the last, provided they are the same as those in the first date. *Ex.* 12—13—26. Pages 168—192. Nos. 2—6. Catalogue of Beale Publishing Company, for 1890—91.

EXCLAMATION POINT. (!)

1. The exclamation point is used after exclamations and interjections, and sentences,

words, and phrases, expressing strong emotion.

Ex. Oh! I thought I should find you. Alas, alas! I am in a sad plight.

NOTE.—When an exclamation is repeated several times, the exclamation point is placed only after the last one; as, Ha, ha, ha!

It is not necessary to use one after the exclamation "Oh," when what follows is part of the exclamatory phrase, and is followed by an exclamation point.

2. The exclamation point is sometimes placed in parentheses, after a word, to express sarcasm. *Ex.* He is a noble (!) man, a kind (!) master, and a true (!) friend.

INTERROGATION POINT. (?)

1. The interrogation point is used at the end of every direct question. *Ex.* Are you going? What is the matter? Will you send us a check for the amount?

2. In certain cases, to denote doubt. *Ex.* This wonderful (?) man. It is a great (?) poem.

THE APOSTROPHE. (')

1. The apostrophe is used to denote the omission of a letter or syllable. *Ex.* Don't. E'er. O'er. Middleboro'.

2. With "s," to indicate the plural of a letter or number. *Ex.* I find trouble in pronouncing the w's and u's.

3. To indicate the omission of a century in dates, where it can be readily understood. *Ex.* Dec. 14, '87. The Revolution commenced in '75.

4. Used with the letter "s," to denote the possessive case of all singular nouns, and all plural nouns, except those ending in "s." *Ex.* Woman's. Father's. John's. Women's.

5. Used after all plural nouns ending in "s," to form the possessive. *Ex.* Boys.' Dogs.'

QUOTATION MARKS. (" ")

1. Quotation marks are used to enclose a direct quotation of the exact words of another writer or speaker. When a quotation occurs inside of a quotation, the single marks are used (' '). *Ex.* He said, "I was passing up the street, and some one cried 'Police,' in a loud voice."

2. Sometimes used to call special attention to some word or phrase, especially in the case of names and titles. *Ex.* They came over in the "Fortune." He could not correctly pronounce "he."

NOTE.—A period or comma occurring directly after the last word of a quotation, is placed before the quotation marks; and a dash, used to show that the quotation is incomplete, is placed in the same position; while all other punctuation marks are placed before them, if they are part of the quotation, and after them if they are used for the purpose of punctuating the sentence itself.

NOTE 2. It has been suggested, wisely, that our method of indicating quotations, in English, is illogical. A more rational way would be to use the single quotation marks in all ordinary cases, and the double quotation marks for the secondary quotations, quotations within quotations. Thus punctuated, the first example would read, He said, 'I was passing up the street, and some one cried "Police," in a loud voice.' We believe in this innovation, and adopt it in our own writing, and consider it worthy of consideration by all.

SHORT "AND." (&)

The short sign for "and" should be used only in the case of firm names, signatures, and addresses, where the same consist of more than one name; and in the case of a corporation, or name of a railroad. *Ex.* Brown & Jones. J. B. Smith & Co. Boston & Maine Railroad. Calumet & Hecla Mining Co.

THE PARENTHESES. ()

The parentheses are used to enclose any words which do not properly belong to the rest of the sentence, either explanatory, correlative, or interjectory. *Ex.* I am afraid (not on my account, however,) that it will cause evil results.

NOTE.—Punctuation marks are placed inside parentheses and brackets, if they are required for the punctuation of the enclosed matter, but after them if they punctuate the sentence as a whole.

THE BRACKETS. []

The brackets are used in a way similar to the parentheses, but are used only for notes, or for editorial corrections in matter quoted from others.

OTHER MARKS OF PUNCTUATION.

The remaining marks of punctuation are *referential*; i. e., used for reference, and consist of the caret (^); the index, or hand (~~✎~~); the ellipsis (* * * *); the star, or asterisk (*); the dagger, or obelisk (†); the double dagger (‡); the paragraph (§); the section (§); and the parallels (||).

1. The caret (^) is used to denote the omission of a letter, word, or phrase, the matter omitted being placed above the line, and the caret being made where the omission occurs.

2. The index (☞) is used to call particular attention to important sentences, clauses, or words.

3. The ellipsis (* * *) is used where part of a sentence is intentionally omitted.

4. The asterisk (*), dagger or obelisk (†), and double dagger (‡), are used to call attention to foot-notes, explaining anything so marked.

5. The paragraph (¶) and section (§) are used in writing, to indicate to the printer where such distinctions should be made; and, in printing, are used at the beginning of paragraphs and sections, to facilitate reference.

6. The parallels (||) are used to call attention to another reading of the same matter.

USE OF CAPITALS.

1. To commence every sentence.
2. To commence every direct quotation.
3. To commence every proper name, or adjective derived from a proper name.
4. After a colon.
5. To commence every line of poetry.

6. The pronoun *I* and interjection *O* are always capitalized.

7. Names and titles of the Deity, Jesus Christ, the Trinity, and the Virgin Mary, commence with capitals, as well as pronouns referring to God or the Saviour.

8. Names of things personified, names of peoples or races, regions of country, and corresponding adjectives, should commence with capitals.

9. Titles of honor and respect (except *sir*, *madam*, and similar titles used after the word "Dear," in addressing a person), should be capitalized.

10. Names of the Bible, titles of books, pictures, etc., should commence with a capital.

11. The name of any article, when used to distinguish it from other articles of the same kind, should be capitalized.

ITALICS.

1. All foreign words should be italicized.

2. When any word or letter is referred to particularly it should be italicized; as, the adjective *happy*; the vowel *e*.

NOTE.—This can not be done on the typewriter, and, in such cases, the word or letter should be enclosed in quotation marks, or a line drawn under it with a pen.

ABBREVIATIONS.

1. Abbreviate only sparingly, as it is at best but a slight gain; and, to a certain extent, in bad taste.

2. The names of the states may be abbreviated, but it is better to do so only in the case of addressing letters.

3. The following abbreviations may be used; beyond these it is not advisable to go, and these should not be used in ordinary writing:—

Acc. or Acct. Account.	Capt. Captain
A. D. (Anno Domini.) In the	Cash. Cashier
year of our Lord	Cf. Compare
Ad. or Adv. Advertisement	Chap. Chapter. Chaplain
Ad v. Ad valorem	Co. Company. County
Æ. or Æt. (Ætatis.) Of age.	C. o. d. Cash (or Collect) on de-
Aged	livery
Agt. Agent	Col. Colonel. Colony
A. M. (Artium Magister.) Mas-	Com. Commerce. Commercial
ter of arts. (Ante Meridiem.)	Cr. Credit. Creditor
Before noon.	Crim. Con. Adultery
Amt. Amount	Ct. Cent
Anon. Anonymous	Cts. Cents
Ans. Answer	Cwt. Hundred-weight
Arr. Arrive. Arrived	D. Five hundred
Atty. Attorney	D. D. (Divinitas Doctor.) Doc-
Av. or Ave. Avenue	tor of Divinity
Avoir. Avoirdupois	Deg. Degree
B. A. Bachelor of Arts	Dem. Democrat
Bal. Balance	Dept. Department
Bbl. or brl. Barrel. Barrels	Dist. Atty. District Attorney
B. C. Before Christ	Do. (Ditto.) The same
Bds. Boards	Doz. Dozen
B. l. Bill of lading	Dr. Debtor. Debit
Brit. British	D. V. (Deo Volente.) God will-
Bro. Brother	ing
Bros. Brothers	Dwt. Pennyweight
B. s. Bill of sale	E. East
C. A hundred.	Ea. Each
Cap. Capital	E. e. Errors excepted

E. g. (Exempli gratia.) For example	Jr. Junior
Eng. England. English	K. d. Knocked down
Esq. Esquire	Lat. Latitude
Et al. (Et a. it.) And others	Lb. Pound
Etc. (Et cætera.) And so forth.	L. c. (Lower case, in printing.)
Et seq. (Et sequentiæ.) And what follows	Lieut. Lieutenant
Ex. Example.	Long. Longitude
Fahr. Fahrenheit	M. (Meridian) Noon. (Mille) Thousand
F. A. M. Free and Accepted Masons	Maj. Major
Fcap. Foolscap	Masc. Masculine
Fct. (Fecit) He made it	Mdse. Merchandise
Fem. Feminine	Mem. Memorandum
Fig. Figure	Messrs. or MM. (Messieurs.) Gentlemen.
F. o. b. Free on board	Mfg. Manufacturing
For. Foreign	Mo. Month
F. R. S. Fellow of the Royal Society	Mr. Mister
Ft. Feet. Foot	Mrs. Mistress (pronounced mis-sis)
Gal. Gallon. Gallons	MS. Manuscript
Galv. Galvanized	MSS. Manuscripts
G. A. R. Grand Army of the Republic	N. or No. North
Gen. General	Nat. National. Natural
Gen. Frt. Agt. or G. F. A. General Freight Agent	Neut. Neuter
Gen. Pass. Agt. or G. P. A. General Passenger Agent	N. T. New Testament
Gen. Tick. Agt. or G. T. A. General Ticket Agent	Obs. Obsolete
Gov. Governor	O. T. Old Testament
Gr. Grain	Oz. Ounce
Hab. corp. (Habeas corpus.) You may have the body	P. Page
H. B. M. His (or Her) Britannic Majesty	Pd. Paid
Heb. Hebrew	Per. By the. (Does not require a period after it.)
Hhd. Hogshead. Hogsheads	Per cent. By the hundred
H. M. S. His (or Her) Majesty's Ship, Steamship or Service	Pk. Peck
Hon. Honorable	Pl. Plaintiff. Plural
H. p. Horse Power	P. M. Postmaster. Afternoon. (Post Meridiem.)
Hund. Hundred	P. O. Postoffice
Id. (Idem.) The same	Pp. Pages
I. c. (Id est.) That is	Prof. Professor
In. Inch. Inches	Prox. [Proximo.] Next month
Inst. This month	P. S. [Postscriptum.] Postscript
Inv. Invoice	Ps. Psalm. Psalms
Isl. Island	Pt. Part. Pint. Point
	P. t. o. Please turn over
	Pub. Public. Publisher
	Pwt. Pennyweight
	Pxt. [Pinxit.] He [or she] painted it
	Q. Ques. Question

Q. e. d. [Quod erat demonstrandum.] Which was to be proved	Sr. Senior
Qr. Quarter. Quire	S. S. Sunday School
Qt. Quart	St. Saint. Street. (Stet.) Let it stand
Q. v. [Quod vide.] Which see	Stat. Statutes
Rec. Received. Recipe	Ster. Sterling
Ref. Reference	Supt. Superintendent
Reg. Regular	Ter. or Terr. Territory
Rel. Relative	Tit. Title
Rem. Remark	Tr. Transpose. Translate
Rep. Republican	Ult. (Ultimo.) Last month
Rev. Reverend. Review. Re- vise. Revolution	Univ. University
R. R. Railroad	U. S. A. United States Army.
R. S. V. P. Answer, if you please	United States of America
Rt. Rev. Right Reverend	Vet. Veteran. Veterinary
Ry. Railway	Vid. (Vide.) See
S. or So. South	Viz. (Videlicet.) Namely. To wit
Sc. (Sculpsit.) He (or she) en- graved it	Vol. Volume. Volunteer
S. c. Small capitals	Vs. (Versus.) Against
Sec. Secretary	W. West
Secl. Section	W. C. T. U. Women's Christian Temperance Union
Sen. Senate. Senator. Senior	W. f. Wrong font
Seq. (Sequentiz.) What follows	Whf. Wharf
Ser. Series	Wt. Weight
Sing. Singular	Yd. Yard
S. L. or L. S. (Sigillum locum.) Place for the seal	Y. M. C. A. Young Men's Chris- tian Association
Soc. Society	Y. W. C. A. Young Women's Christian Association
Sq. Square. Squire	

On account of limited space, most geographical, grammatical, scientific, and technical abbreviations have been omitted. For a complete list of such abbreviations, the reader is referred to the excellent work on abbreviations, by Bishop Fallows, published by the Standard Book Co., Chicago.

ONE HUNDRED COMMON MISTAKES.

The following frequent errors, although not properly coming under the heading "Punctuation," will be beneficial to all who use this book, and they have been included for the purpose of making the book more helpful. The first example contains the error. The second corrects it.

Do not say

1. Neither you *or* I. Neither you *nor* I.
2. I have got some. I *have* some.
3. Try and go. Try *to* go.
4. John Smith, Esq. *Mr.* John Smith.
5. It burned up (or *down*). It was burned (or destroyed by fire).
6. Fill it full. Fill it.
7. A widow woman. A widow.
8. You are mistaken. You mistake.
9. He learned me. He *taught* me.
10. Divide it among you. Share it.
11. I want to go. I *wish* to go.
12. Between all. *Among* all. (If more than two.)
13. My older brother. My *elder* brother.
14. Pants. *Pantaloon*s or *trousers*.
15. Gents. *Gentlemen*.

In connection with the last two errors, the following, by the genial Oliver Wendell Holmes, is good:

"The things called "pants" in certain documents,
Were never made for gentlemen, but *gents*."

16. Too much dissipation. Dissipation. (*Any* dissipation is too much.)

17. I have been standing on my *feet* all day. I have been standing all day.

18. Who do you see? *Whom* do you see?

19. Have you took it? Have you *taken* it?

20. He told you and I. You and *me*.

21. One should choose his words carefully. One should choose *one's* words carefully.

22. I am as good as him. I am as good as *he* (is).

23. Received of Mr.—. Received *from* Mr.—

24. Them books. Those books.

25. The plants froze. The plants *were* frozen.

26. A Boston paper advertised that it had "The largest circulation of *any* paper in New Eng and." Upon being informed of the error, the intelligent editor changed the advertisement to "A *larger* circulation *than any* paper in New England." It should have read "A circulation larger than *any other* paper in New England."

27. Back a letter. Address a letter.

28. Equally as well. Equally well, or, As well.

29. From whence. Whence.

30. I have to do it. I *must* do it.

31. Struck his eye. (!) Attracted his attention.

32. I went to his house and found him *out*. I went to his house, and he *was* out.

33. A dead corpse. A corpse, or, A dead body.

34. A prominent Boston restaurant has the sign "Ladies' entrance." The correct form is "Ladies' entrance."

35. Among one another. Among yourselves. (or, themselves).

36. I seen him. I saw him.

37. Thereabouts, hereabouts, whereabouts. There are no such such words; say, *thereabout*, etc.

38. Whether or no. Whether or *not*.
39. Do not say *unbeknown* or *unbeknownst*. Say *unknown*, but beware of saying *unknown to us*. Say, *unknown by us*.
40. Do not say *balance* when you mean *remainder*. When what remains *equals* what is taken, it is a *balance*.
41. Do not say *dry*, meaning *thirsty*.
42. Fruit is healthy. Fruit is *wholesome*.
43. Whom say ye that I am? (Luke IX: 20). *Who* say ye that I am?
44. Wanted,—a woman to *cook*. A woman *as* cook.
45. Such an old man. *So old* a man.
46. Do not confound *shall* and *will*. The following well-known quatrain may be of service:
"In the first person simply *shall* foretells;
In *will* a threat or else a promise dwells.
Shall in the second and third's threat;—
Will, simply, then, foretells the future feat."
47. Do not say *whiter*, *blacker*, *deader*, etc. There can be no degree of comparison to such words. If anything is *full*, it cannot be *fuller*.
48. Card players often speak of the *count-cards*, doubtless thinking the names, King, Queen, Knave, refer to an imaginary *court*. Say *coat-cards*. The first playing cards represented the King, etc., with long *coats*. Hence the name.
49. He is very much of a *gentleman*. He is very gentlemanly.
50. Do not say a *lady-friend* or *gentleman-friend*. They are not considered elegant expressions.
51. In writing "Dear sir," at the beginning of a letter, use a small "s" in "sir." This remark also applies to "Dear sirs," "Dear madam," and similar cases.
In signing a letter with "Yours truly," "Very respectfully yours," and similar phrases, use the capital for the first word only.

52. In abbreviating "second" and "third," write "2d" and "3d," not "2nd," or "3rd."

53. In writing a date, when the number of the day of the month follows the month, as, "Dec. 24," never add "th," "st," or "d," as "Dec. 24th," as the latter is incorrect.

54. Commence the names of the days of the week, and the names of the months,—but not the names of the seasons,—with capitals; thus, February, Monday; but, summer, winter, spring, autumn.

55. When a word which would be followed by a comma, is abbreviated, do not forget to use both period and comma after it; but, if it would be followed by a period when written out, the same period will answer for both.

56. Do not divide a word in the middle of a syllable, or carry over only one letter to the next line, or leave it at the end of the first line.

57. It is coming to be the custom in England, and also to some extent in this country, to omit the period after Mr., Dr., Messrs., and Mrs., and, if desirable, this is allowable.

58. In writing numbers, except where the figures follow the word "number," which in such cases is usually abbreviated to No. (capital N,) write them in words, if they are less than one hundred; in figures, if over one hundred.

59. I wanted to have gone. I wanted "to go."

60. There used to be a sign in a store on Cornhill, Boston, which read, "Umbrellas recovered while you wait." The proprietor has grown wiser, and changed it to "Umbrellas re-covered while you wait."

61. Do not say "beside" when you mean "besides."

62. Both "of the" men. Both men.

63. No less than twenty stenographers. Not "fewer" than.

64. The two last scholars. The "last two" scholars.

65. He met with them often. He met them often.
66. Such another one. Another such one.
67. Be careful about "further" and "farther." I can see farther than you can (not further.) I will talk further on the subject (not farther.)
68. Do not say quite when you mean *somewhat*. *Quite* means *wholly*.
69. Periods and commas should be placed before apostrophes or quotation marks; as, "John." "Youths."
70. I will come to you. I will "go" to you.
71. Choose between them. Choose "from" them.
72. Be careful about your prepositions. A well known grammar gives the rule: "A preposition should never be used to end a sentence 'with.'" A good rule, but a curious blunder.
73. All over the country. Over the "whole" country.
74. I *laid* down. (Past tense.) I *lay* down.
75. I lay down. (Present tense.) I *lie* down.

NOTE. These verbs are very troublesome. They may be remembered as follows:

The hen lays, laid, has laid, an egg.

John lies, lay, has lain, down.

The teacher sets, set, has set, a good example.

The pupil sits, sat, has sat, on the dunce stool.

The boy raises, raised, has raised, turnips.

The father arises, arose, has arisen, from his seat.

Hay rises, rose, has risen, in price.

76. The Old Colony R. R. Co. has signs like the following posted in different places: "Walking on the track is forbid." To be correct, it should be, "forbidden."

77. The signs seen so frequently: "For sale," "To rent," and "To let," ought to be as follows: "To be sold," "To be rented," and "To be let."

78. Some extra-particular people say a "ten-feet pole," thinking the common form, "ten-foot pole," incorrect, whereas it is the only correct form. To see the exact force, suppose these same persons should say, "a twelve-inches rule," or a "three-pints measure."

79. In using expressions like the foregoing, be careful to insert the hyphen. "Seven inch advertisements" means something entirely different from "seven-inch advertisements."

80. He has completely finished. Omit *completely*.

81. Raise the window. Raise the sash. (The *hole* is the window.)

82. She has a new pair of gloves. A pair of new gloves.

83. They were gathered together. Omit *together*.

84. He can write faster than me. Faster than I.

85. Hear to my words. *Listen* to my words.

86. I would sooner do it than not. I would *rather* do it than not.

87. A Boston reporter wrote recently, "He apostrophized all present." The word apostrophe means an address to one *not* present.

88. Write *shorthand* as one word; not *short-hand*.

89. He was called John. He was named John.

90. His orthography was poor. An impossibility, since orthography means *correct* spelling.

91. He raised up his hand. He raised his hand.

92. You look badly. You look *bad*. (But "You do not look well," would be better.)

93. Repeat it again. Repeat it. (Repeat *is* "saying it again.")

94. Come to visit with me. Omit the *with*.

95. Tell him to quickly come. Tell him to come quickly.

The *to* should never be separated from the rest of the verb.

96. "Your last letter," is usually wrong. It should be, "Your *latest* letter."

97. "Take a seat." Be seated, or, Seat yourself.

98. It was not me. It was not I.

99. Which of the two is best. Which of the two is *better*.

100. Throughout the whole word. Omit the *whole*.

101. Something like it. *Somewhat* like it.

APPENDIX.

TITLES:—In a title-page, or in a heading of any article or chapter, the nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs, begin with capital letters.

PARAGRAPHING:—A short letter or article should not consist of more than one paragraph, unless the sense and connection change very much. In long articles, a few paragraphs, where there is much separation of thought, improve the appearance of the typewritten page.

GENERAL HINTS:—Do not end a sentence with a preposition; do not separate the two parts of a verb; do not use an adverb, when the verb expresses the same idea; do not begin a sentence with a conjunction; do not use an adjective to qualify a verb; do not use a long word when a short one will serve the purpose; do not use a foreign word, when there is an English word of the same meaning.

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